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Regulation of superoxide stress in *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440 is different from the SoxR paradigm in *Escherichia coli*

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Abstract

In Escherichia coli, the SoxR regulon orchestrates genes for defense against certain types of oxidative stress through the SoxR-regulated synthesis of the SoxS transcription activator. The Pseudomonas putida genome did not reveal a clear soxS homolog. The P. putida SoxR protein appears to be functional: its expression in an E. $coli \ \Delta soxR$ strain restored the paraquat inducibility of soxS. Of nine candidate P. putida oxidative stress genes, which are known to be SoxR regulon in E. coli, tested for response to superoxide or nitric oxide, fumC-1, sodA, zwf-1, and particularly fpr, encoding ferredoxin:NADP⁺ reductase, were induced, all independent of P. putida soxR. Disruption of the fpr and finR, a regulatory protein that is required for paraquat-dependent expression of the fpr, resulted in more oxidative stress sensitivity. However, a P. putida soxR-deletion strain had normal resistance to the superoxide-generating agent paraquat. The data presented here show that the genetic responses to superoxide stress in P. putida differ markedly from those seen in E. coli and Salmonella, and the role of P. putida soxR remains to be established.

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Pollutant-degrading bacteria may experience oxidative stress, both as a direct effect of the pollutants themselves, and from intermediates generated during biodegradation processes [1,2]. Many redox-cycling pollutants generate superoxide (O2⁻) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), which in the presence of redox-active metals (e.g., copper, iron), can produce hydroxyl radicals inside bacterial cells [2]. These reactive oxygen species (ROS) can be damaging for bacterial cells and decrease the survival rate of indigenous or introduced microorganisms for bioremediation. Regulated adaptive responses of microorganisms to oxidative stress have been extensively studied using *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella enterica* as model microorganisms [3–7]. However, the oxidative stress response of common soil microorganisms has been poorly characterized.

The SoxR regulon in E. coli plays important roles in protection against superoxide and nitric oxide stresses [5,8–10]. The SoxR regulon is controlled by the SoxR, a MerR-family transcription factor containing redox-active [2Fe-2S] centers. SoxR is activated upon [2Fe-2S] oxidation, and it then induces transcription of the divergently transcribed soxS gene [10]. The SoxS protein is the direct transcriptional activator of the individual SoxR regulon genes including the manganese superoxide dismutase (sodA), the DNA repair enzyme endonuclease IV (nfo), fumarase C (fumC), and ferredoxin/flavodoxin oxido-reductase (fpr), among >60 regulon genes [5,11–13]. Pseudomonas putida is a metabolically versatile, saprophytic soil bacterium that has been extensively studied as an experimental model soil microorganism [14,15]. The genome sequence of P. putida KT2440 has been recently completed [16] and provides a new framework for such an analysis [17]. The genome of P. putida KT2440 reveals that it possesses a soxR homolog, but there is no obvious soxS

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homolog. In this work, we found that *P. putida* SoxR appeared to be functional, based on trans-complementation experiments with *E. coli*. However, none of several oxidative stress-inducible genes was dependent on the *P. putida* SoxR. Although the *fpr* gene was not regulated by SoxR, it was induced dependent on FinR, a novel LysR-type transcription factor encoded by a gene adjacent to *fpr*. Thus, regulation by superoxide stress in *P. putida* KT2440 may be quite different from the SoxR mechanism of *E. coli*.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions. The bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Bacterial cultures were grown at 37 °C for *E. coli* and at 30 °C for *Pseudomonas* strains in Luria–Bertani (LB) broth with vigorous aeration by shaking at 250 rpm. Kanamycin (100 μ g/ml) or tetracyline (15 μ g/ml) was added as necessary. Paraquat (PQ), menadione (MD), and spermine-diazeniumdiolate (spermine-NONOate) were added at the final concentrations described in the figure legends. Rifampicin (200 μ g/ml) was added to stop further transcription.

DNA and plasmid manipulation. PCR and cloning for vector construction were performed as described by Ausubel et al. [18]. The primers used in this study are listed in Table 2. The 713-bp fragment of soxR region, amplified using a set of primers (PsoxRS-3/Psox-P2), were cloned into the pCR2.1-TOPO vector (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), generating pWP100. The plasmid was introduced into $E.\ coli\ INV-αF'$ competent cells (Invitrogen). Both directions of the insert fragment were sequenced, and all sequencing was completed at Dana-Farber/Harvard Cancer Center. The verified plasmid was subcloned into $E.\ coli\ EH46$ strain (ΔsoxRS, soxS'::lacZ) creating EH46 (pWP100).

Construction of P. putida KT2440 soxR mutant. The suicide transcriptional fusion vector, pVIK112 [19], was used for constructing mutation in the soxR gene of P. putida. Primer pair SoxR-D1/SoxR-D2 was designed to target an internal region of the soxR gene. Construction and verification of the soxR mutant was performed using a previously described procedure [20]. Construction of the finR and fpr mutants was previously described [20].

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay. Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) was performed using a previously described procedure [21], except that the putative *P. putida* SoxR-binding site was amplified with the Psox-P1/Psox-P2 primer pair, which yields a 255-bp fragment.

Northern blot analysis. Northern blot analysis was performed as described previously [20]. The primer pairs used in Northern blot analysis

are listed in Table 2. The primer pairs were amplified by PCR for preparing the specific probes for acnA, fpr, fumC-1, fur, ribA, rimK, sodA, tolC, and zwf-1, respectively.

Quantitative real-time PCR. Total RNA was treated with RNase-free DNase I (Ambion) to eliminate contaminating DNA and reverse transcribed with the Reverse Transcription System (Promega). Quantitative real-time PCR (QRT-PCR) was performed using Brilliant SYBR Green Master Mix QPCR (Stratagene) in an iCycler real-time thermocycler (Bio-Rad). Standard curves were made with different concentrations of the DNA probes used for Northern blots.

Results and discussion

Sequence analysis of a SoxR homolog in P. putida KT2440

The genome of P. putida KT2440 encodes a SoxR homolog with 62% amino acid identity with SoxR of E. coli, and 56% identity with the *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 protein. All have four conserved cysteine residues corresponding to those required for anchoring the [2Fe-2S] centers of E. coli SoxR (positions 119, 122, 124, and 130). The head-to-head arrangement of the soxR and soxS genes was seen only in E. coli and S. enterica. The SoxR and SoxS in these two species function similarly [4], while a clear soxS homolog was not found in the other genomes analyzed. The NCBI annotation of the soxR region in P. putida KT2440 is shown as the upper diagram in Fig. 1A, with the proposed soxR-proximal gene of unknown function denoted as PP2061. PP2061 does not have a homolog in the NCBI database. The lower diagram in Fig. 1A indicates an alternative soxR-proximal gene hyp oriented opposite to PP2061. No hyp homolog is present in the NCBI database, but the orientation of hyp relative to sox R and the intergenic separation are very similar to the arrangement of the E. coli soxRS locus. Interestingly, the putative 18-bp SoxR binding site of P. putida KT2440 is present upstream of the soxR gene and differs by only three bp from that of E. coli SoxR. The sequence analysis implied that SoxR of P. putida KT2440 might function similarly to E. coli protein in redox sensing, DNA binding, and transcriptional activation of the neighboring gene.

Table 1
Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study

Bacterial strain/plasmid	rial strain/plasmid Description	
Strains		
E. coli INV-αF'	$F'^{endA1recA1hsdR17}(r_k^-, m_k^+)$ supE44 thi-1 gyrA96 relA1 ϕ 80lacZM15 Δ lacZYA-argF)U169	Invitrogen
E. coli GC4468	E. coli K12 $rpsL$ thi $soxR^+$ $soxS^+$	[31]
E. coli EH46	DJ901 (derived from GC4468 by introduction of the <i>soxRS901</i> deletion), lysogenized with λEH40 carrying a <i>soxS'::lacZ</i> transcriptional fusion)	[31]
E. coli EC100D pir-116	Tra R6K strain	Epicentre
E. coli S17-1 λpir	Tra ⁺ R6K strain	[19]
P. putida KT2440	TOL plasmid-cured derivative of <i>P. putida</i> mt-2	[16]
P. putida KT2440Tc	TOL plasmid-cured derivative of <i>P. putida</i> mt-2 with mini-Tn5 insertion of Tet ^R	[32]
P. putida KT2440-SoxR	soxR ⁻ mutant, derivative of P. putida KT2440, insertion of pHU2	This study
P. putida KT2440-FinR	finR ⁻ mutant, insertion of pVIK-finR into P. putida KT2440	[20]
P. putida KT2440-Fpr	fpr ⁻ mutant, insertion of pVIK-KO1 into P. putida KT2440	[20]
Plasmids		
pVIK112	R6K oriV, suicide vector, lacZ fusion.	[19]
pWP100	pCR2.1-TOPO vector containing the <i>P. putida soxR</i> region	This study
pHU1	Internal soxR fragment in pCR2.1-TOPO	This study

Table 2 Primers used in this study

Name	Sequence 5'-3'	mer	
acnA Pp-hA	GTT GCC GCC TTC TTC ACC	18	
acnA Pp-hS	GAC CAC CGA CCA CAT TTC CC	20	
fpr Pp-hA	GCC GGT GCT CAG CAG GTA C	19	
fpr Pp-hS	CCA TCG CTT CGC CAA ACT G	19	
fumC1 Pp-hA	GAT GTC ATT GCT GCT CTG G	19	
fumC1 Pp-hS	GTT CAT TCG TGC CTT GTT G	19	
fur Pp-hA	CTG GGT CAG CAC GCG ATA G	19	
fur Pp-hS	GCA AAG CCG GTC TCA AGG	18	
Psox-P1	CGC <u>GGT ACC</u> GAT CAG CCC CTT GGT TTC GTA G	31	
Psox-P2	CGC <u>GAA TTC</u> CGT GCG TCG TGG CTT TGG GTA A	31	
Psox-P2	CGC <u>GAA TTC</u> CGT GCG TCG TGG CTT TGG GTA A	31	
PsoxRS-3	ACA GGG TTA GGG CGG TGA TTC GTC	24	
pVIK-R	ACC ATG GTC ATA GCT GTT TCC TG	23	
ribA Pp-hA	CTC GCC CTG GTG TTC GTT GC	20	
ribA Pp-hS	CAA GTC GCT GCG CCT GAT G	19	
rimK Pp-hA	CGG TGA TGC GCT CTT CTG G	19	
rimK Pp-hS	CAT TGG CGT GGT GCT GTG C	19	
sodA Pp-hA	CAG GGC TTC AAG GTA ACG AC	20	
sodA Pp-hS	GAG TAG CGG CAA CCA GGA C	19	
SoxR-D1	CGC <u>GAG CTC</u> GCA GCG GCG TGG CGG TGT CT	29	
SoxR-D2	CGC <u>GGT ACC</u> TGC GGG CAT TCA GGT CTT C	28	
tolC Pp-hA	GGT GCG TCC TAC TTC ATT CG	20	
tolC Pp-hS	GGT GGC TAC TAC CCT TCC G	19	
zwfl Pp-hA	CAG CAG CGA ACG GGT CATC	19	
zwf1 Pp-hS	CTG TAC CAG CAG GCG GAG AAC	21	

Restriction enzyme sites, used for cloning purposes, are underlined.

Complementation of an E. coli soxR-null mutant with P. putida KT2440 SoxR

We tested the functionality of *P. putida* SoxR initially by cross-complementation of an E. $coli \Delta sox R$ mutant. P. putida SoxR was amplified and subcloned into the pCR2.1-TOPO vector. After verification of the sequences, the resulting vector (pWP100) was transformed into E. coli strain EH46 (ΔsoxRS, soxS '::lacZ). Northern blot analysis was performed to confirm the expression of SoxR in the E. coli strains using a P. putida SoxR probe (Fig. 1B). It appeared that P. putida SoxR was expressed from the plasmid with or without PQ treatment of the bacteria. PQ treatment strongly elevated the P. putida SoxR-dependent transcription of the E. coli soxS promoter about sixfold (Fig. 1C). The PQ-responsiveness of soxS transcription dependent on the P. putida soxR plasmid indicates that the *Pseudomonas* homolog undergoes redox regulation, probably through [2Fe-2S] centers.

Binding of E. coli SoxR to the putative SoxR binding site of P. putida KT2440 in vitro

Only one putative SoxR binding-like site was found in the *P. putida* KT2440 genome by searching for sequence motifs (CCTMAAGTTWRSTTGAGS), which is the intergenic region between *soxR* and a hypothetical gene (Fig. 1A). However, this SoxR binding-like site is present in three loci (upstream of PA2274, PA3718, and *mexG*) in the genome of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 [22]. There are no

such homologs or any other likely SoxR binding sites found in the genome of P. putida KT2440. This P. putida SoxR binding-like site can be bound by E. coli SoxR in vitro (Fig. 2), but several attempts by Northern blot and primer extension analysis failed to show increased transcription of the hypothetical gene upstream of soxR under conditions known to activate E. coli soxS expression (data not shown). The P. putida soxR gene itself was also not induced under any conditions tested in Northern blotting experiments (data not shown). However, in vivo activity of the P. putida soxR promoter fused to the lacZ gene was detected (data not shown), and the analysis indicated that the gene is negatively autoregulated (12.9 Miller units in a $soxR^+$ strain vs. 40 Miller units in a $soxR^-$ strain), as is the case with E. coli soxR [23]. The P. putida KT2440 soxR gene was disrupted by Campbell-type, single-crossover homologous recombination [19] using the suicide plasmid pHU2 (containing an internal region of *P. putida soxR*). The growth rate of this soxR mutant strain was the same as $soxR^+$ P. putida in both rich and minimal medium, and both strains showed similar growth inhibition by added PQ (data not shown). Further experimentation is still needed to determine whether P. putida soxR is involved in oxidative stress or other responses in that organism.

Induction of superoxide stress genes, that are known to be SoxR regulon in E. coli, in P. putida KT2440

To gain further insight into oxidative stress responses in *P. putida*, we examined the expression of nine genes (*acnA*,

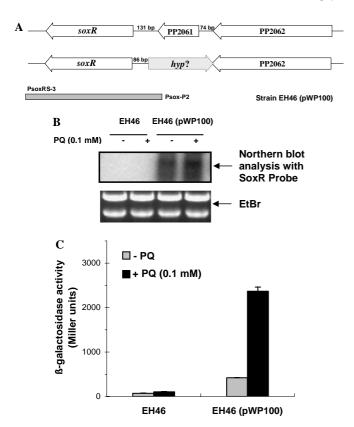


Fig. 1. Complementation of *E. coli* soxR-null mutant with *P. putida* KT2440 SoxR. (A) Diagram shows the genetic organization of the soxR and hyp (hypothetical) genes in *P. putida* KT2440, and the fragment amplified with PsoxRS-3/Psox-P2 primer pair is indicated (hyp: hypothetical protein; numbers between two genes are the length of the intergenic region between the soxR gene and the upstream gene. (B) Northern blot analysis using the soxR gene probe generated by PCR using SoxR-D1/SoxR-D2 primer pair. The ethidium bromide-stained (EtBr) gel prior to blotting is also shown, which demonstrates consistent loading. The growth rate of the two strains EH46, EH46(pWP100) was similar in LB medium (data now shown). (C) The level of soxS'::lacZ reporter expression, measured by β -galactosidase activity, is shown for each strain. The bars represent means and standard deviations of three determinations.

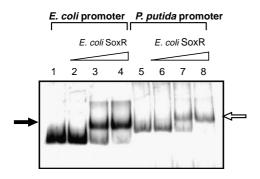


Fig. 2. Binding of *E. coli* SoxR to the putative SoxR binding site of *P. putida* KT2440 in vitro. Protein–DNA binding was measured by EMSA. The concentration of purified *E. coli* SoxR increases from lane 1 to lane 4 (0 nM in lanes 1, 5; 1 nM in lanes 2, 6; 10 nM in lanes 3, 7; 20 nM in lanes 4, 8). Binding of purified *E. coli* SoxR to the fragment (180 bp) containing the *E. coli* SoxR binding site and the fragment (255 bp) containing the putative *P. putida* SoxR binding site is indicated by the arrows (filled and open, respectively).

fpr, fumC-1, fur, ribA, rimK, sodA, tolC, and zwf-1) by Northern blot and QRT-PCR. The E. coli counterparts of these genes are known to be involved in the SoxR-mediated oxidative stress defense [5]. Only fpr, fumC-1, sodA, and zwf-1 genes were induced by superoxide and nitric oxide in Northern blotting analysis (Fig. 3A). The expression of the P. putida acnA, fur, rimK, and tolC genes, which are twofold induced by PQ in E. coli [24], was not induced in P. putida by any of the agents tested in Northern blot analysis (data now shown). Since the hybridization of some blots with acnA, ribA, and rimK gave rather weak signals, their expression levels were confirmed by QRT-PCR (Table 3). PQ-induced expression of oxidative stress genes determined by QRT-PCR was highly correlated with Northern blotting $(r = 0.961, P \le 0.001)$. The QRT-PCR data, in the presence of PQ (1 mM) for 10 min, demonstrated that the expression of acnA, ribA, and rimK genes are not induced, although there is a slight increase of expression of the acnA gene (Table 3). The highest fpr expression was detected within 1 min for menadione or nitric oxide, but the PQ-dependent induction was higher at 10 min. The expression of class II fumarate hydratase (fumC-1) and manganese superoxide dismutase (sodA) genes required at least 10 min of exposure to superoxide (Fig. 3A). Conversely, the highest expression of glucose

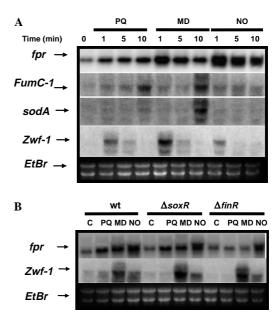


Fig. 3. Induction of the oxidative stress genes in response to oxidative and nitrosative stress in *P. putida* KT2440. (A) Northern blot analysis of the *fpr, fumC-1, sodA*, and *zwf-1* gene expression is shown. Total mRNA was extracted at 1, 5, or 10 min after treatment of cells with 1 mM PQ (PQ), 0.5 mM menadione (MD), and 0.1 mM spermine-NONOate (NO). The ethidium bromide-stained (EtBr) gel prior to blotting demonstrated consistent loading in all lanes. (B) Induction of *fpr* and *zwf-1* genes by oxidative or nitrosative stress in *P. putida* KT2440 wild-type, a *soxR* mutant ($\Delta soxR$), and a *finR* mutant ($\Delta finR$). A different incubation time was used for each reagent to maximize *fpr* expression: 1 mM paraquat (PQ), 10 min; 0.5 mM menadione (MD), 1 min; 0.1 mM spermine-NONOate (NO), 1 min. The experiment was repeated at least three times with similar results.

Table 3
Comparison of QRT-PCR and Northern blotting on the relative mRNA abundance of oxidative stress genes in *P. putida* upon exposure to 1 mM PQ for 10 min

Gene	Femtograms of mRNA		PQ/ctrl ratio for QRT-PCR		PQ/ctrl ratio for Northern		r
	Controls	Paraquat	Average	95% CI	Average	95% CI	
acnA	0.49 ± 0.08	0.61 ± 0.13	1.26 ± 0.29	0.80-1.71	n.d.	_	
fpr	4.13 ± 1.40	$11.86 \pm 1.70^{**}$	2.87 ± 0.34	2.34-3.41	2.59 ± 0.06	2.49-2.69	0.974
fumC-1	2.81 ± 0.51	$7.17 \pm 1.23^*$	2.55 ± 0.36	1.99-3.12	1.72 ± 0.29	1.25-2.18	0.840
ribA	4.20 ± 0.51	4.02 ± 0.09	0.97 ± 0.11	0.79 - 1.14	0.76 ± 0.06	0.67 - 0.85	0.960
rim K	2.02 ± 0.15	1.77 ± 0.19	0.88 ± 0.09	0.74-1.01	0.85 ± 0.14	0.64 - 1.07	0.908
sodA	0.67 ± 0.19	$1.26 \pm 0.17^*$	1.88 ± 0.20	1.56-2.21	1.51 ± 0.44	0.81 - 2.22	0.858
tolC	70.0 ± 7.9	68.3 ± 5.2	0.98 ± 0.06	0.88 - 1.07	0.89 ± 0.05	0.81 - 0.97	0.912
zwf-1	2.53 ± 0.64	2.57 ± 0.28	0.97 ± 0.15	0.74-1.21	0.85 ± 0.15	0.61-1.09	0.917

r, the Pearson correlation coefficient; ctrl, control; PQ, paraquat.

6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase (*zwf-1*) gene upon oxidative and nitrosative stress was within 1 min and decreased rapidly (Fig. 3A). The QRT-PCR data indicated that the *fpr*, *fumC-1*, and *sodA* genes were highly induced (2.9-, 2.6-, and 1.9-fold, respectively) in the presence of PQ (1 mM) for 10 min (Table 3). However, consistent with the Northern blot analysis where the *zwf-1* gene was induced within 1 min and decreased rapidly, the *zwf-1* gene was not induced in the 10 min exposure of the QRT-PCR analysis (Table 3). Interestingly, the induction of *fpr*, *fumC-1*, *sodA*, and *zwf-1* genes by oxidative and nitrosative stress was independent of *P. putida* SoxR, because a strain of *P. putida* defective in SoxR behaved similarly to the wild type when exposed to PQ, menadione or nitric oxide (Fig. 3B, data now shown for the *fumC-1* and *sodA* genes).

Previously, we have shown that FinR, a LysR-type transcriptional regulator, is required for induction of the fpr gene in response to PQ or menadione [20]. Although oxidative stress-induced expression of fpr in E. coli is dependent on soxR [25,26], in P. putida fpr was still inducible by PQ, menadione, and nitric oxide in a $\triangle soxR$ strain (Fig. 3B). However, in a *P. putida* strain deleted for the FinR protein, fpr induction in response to PQ or menadione was lost (Fig. 3B). Interestingly, FinR is not required for the fpr response to nitric oxide in P. putida (Fig. 3B), which suggests the existence of additional regulators. Furthermore, the induction of fumC-1, sodA, and zwf-1 by superoxide or nitric oxide was not dependent of SoxR or FinR (Fig. 3B, data now shown), indicating the involvement of other regulators. Exponentially grown ($\sim 10^7$ cells) aliquots of each strain were spotted onto LB agar containing PQ. The fpr and finR mutants could not grow in the presence of PQ (0.2 mM) after three days incubation (Fig. 4). However, at lower concentration of PQ (0.04 mM), the finR mutant could grow after two days incubation (Fig. 4). Growth inhibition of the soxR mutant of P. putida KT2440 by PO was not severe in agar-plate assay (Fig. 4).

While bacterial transcriptional factors that respond to oxidative stress have been extensively characterized in *E. coli* and *S. enterica* [4,5,16], much less has been learned

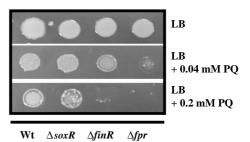


Fig. 4. Phenotypic assays of wild-type and mutant strains of *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440. Growth of all tested strains on LB agar plate containing PQ. Cells (10⁷) in exponential growth were spotted on LB agar with and without Paraquat (PQ), at the final concentrations shown in the figure.

for the Pseudomonas species, including the important model soil microorganism P. putida KT2440. We focused initially on SoxR, which in E. coli and S. enterica governs responses to superoxide-generating agents, such as PQ and menadione, and to nitric oxide [5]. For the several genes examined, P. putida soxR did not seem to be involved in the response to superoxide or nitric oxide. The P. putida protein is clearly functional and can be redox-regulated, as demonstrated when it was expressed in E. coli, which highlights the question of what genes in P. putida might be SoxR-controlled. In contrast with the results found here, Kobayahsi and Tagawa [27] have shown that the gene of unknown function located near SoxR (in the same position of soxS) in P. aeruginosa 3080 strain is controlled by SoxR. We cannot exclude the possibility that a completely new oxidative defense system may have evolved in *Pseudomonas* species, thus rendering SoxR-dependent system obsolete or taking over the control of genes that were formerly SoxRregulon. This hypothesis is supported by the fact that Pseudomonas species have more complex regulatory system than E. coli system [3,7,28–30] and the genome of Pseudomonas syringae pv. tomato str. DC3000 does not have a SoxR homolog. Current efforts are seeking to identify soxR-regulated genes in P. putida directly. Our data suggest that superoxide stress responses in *P. putida* KT2440 differ in their regulation from the systems of E. coli. These studies

^{*} P < 0.01.

^{**} P < 0.001 for an independent-samples T test; n.d., not detected.

will enhance the understanding of the physiology and ecology of soil microorganisms in bioremediation processes where oxidative stress is an important challenge.

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